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GUIDE TO ENGLISH PARSING;

INTENDED BOTH FOR COMMERCIAL AND GRAMMAR
SCHOOLS.

BY THE

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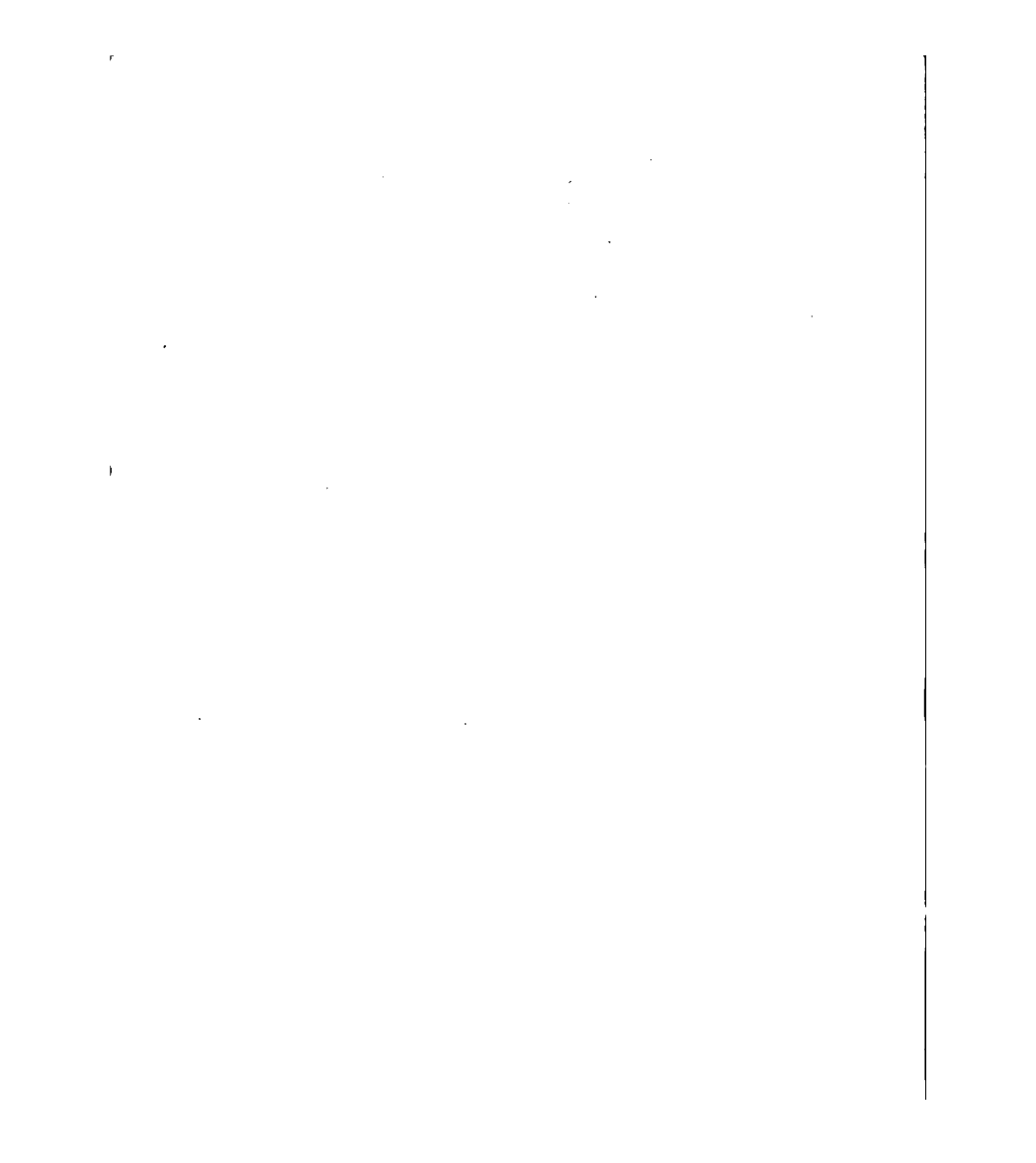
PREFATORY REMARKS.

This little work is the result of more than thirty years' teaching in a school consisting of two departments; in the one of which the usual grammar school routine is pursued, whilst in the other the boys receive an English, or commercial education.

The Author found by experience, that, however useful in many respects were the English grammars generally to be met with in schools, he could not by their help enable boys to analyse an ordinary sentence, or to distinguish with certainty between the different parts of speech. He was therefore driven to fall back upon certain principles common to languages in general; and these are now laid before the public, in the hope, that they may be useful not only where English is the language chiefly taught, but also where the classics are studied. Any teacher who has to deal with the junior forms of a grammar school must know, that, if his pupils could parse and analyse their own tongue, one half their difficulties in translating from English to Latin, and from Latin to English, would be removed.

THE GUIDE TO ENGLISH PARSING is not a grammar, nor is it intended to supersede the use of one; it is not even a complete syntax, nor does it explain all the difficulties, much less point out all the faults incident to English composition; it simply professes to be a help towards the grammatical analysis of that language. Many of the rules therein contained are applicable, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Latin and Greek tongues; and it is hoped, that throughout the book not a word will be found, which a lad of ordinary capacity may not understand.

The key to the Author's system of teaching is this; that each word is in each place the part of speech of which it there fulfils the office, without reference to its etymology, or the uses to which it may serve elsewhere; next that, Propositions must be parsed by disposing the words of the Subject and Predicate in their logical or sense order; and lastly that, Compound sentences must be unravelled by placing the component propositions in the order of their natural dependence on each other.



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GUIDE TO ENGLISH PARSING.

CHAPTER I.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. God has given to man in common with other animals five senses; namely,—hearing, sight, smell, touch, and taste; and He has distinguished him from them by the gift of an understanding soul, and the power of speech.

2. By the aid of the senses men become acquainted with the things which are, and take place around them; and the soul within thinks, knows, reasons, feels, and prompts men to act.

3. By means of speech men communicate what they think, know, and feel, to their fellow creatures.

4. The organs (instruments) of speech are the tongue, the lips, the teeth, the palate, the throat; of these the most important is the tongue; whence speech is called language from *lingua* (*langue*) a tongue.

5. Language is either spoken or written, and it consists of words. The words used by any one nation make the language of that nation.

6. Words are sounds of the human voice having a fixed meaning; which sounds stand for, and are the names of, things, actions, and conceptions of the mind.

7. In English there are nine different sorts of words, or parts of speech; the Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Pronoun, Conjunction, Preposition, Adverb, Interjection, and Article.

Obs.—The word *Noun*, commonly used in grammars, means simply *Name*, and in reality may be applied to all words; for all words are names either of a thing really existing, or of an act, or of a conception of the mind; but is usually applied only to the words Substantive and Adjective;—in this book it will only be found in the word Pronoun.

8. A Substantive is the name of any thing which exists by itself, or which can be spoken of as so existing; as *House, Dog, Virtue, Darkness*.

Obs.—One substantive before another, forming part of it, becomes an adjective to it; as, *Wine-glass*; and the same is true of a substantive in the possessive case; as, *My father's house*.

9. An Adjective is the name of a quality, or attribute, considered as existing in a thing, or in some way distinguishing it.

Obs. 1.—When the substantive to which an adjective belongs is clearly known, it is often left out, and then the adjective in question becomes a substantive; as, *The good, The bad; Beloved by old, and young; Strong and weak, all died*.

Obs. 2.—A Quality is that by which a thing is described of what sort it is; thus in *Green-field*, *Green* is added on to *Field* to show what sort of field is meant.

An Attribute is whatever can be said of a thing as in some way belonging to, or distinguishing it; thus in *Those ten men drank much wine*, the adjectives *Those, ten, much*, express the attributes *Position, number, quantity*.

Obs. 3.—If a quality, or attribute is spoken of as some thing separate, its name becomes a substantive; as, *Greenness, unity*. Such substantives are called Abstract. (See No. 109.)

10. A Verb is part of speech by which an action or state of being is named, and asserted to occur or not to occur. Thus two things are necessary to make a word

a verb; first that it should be the *name of an action, or state of being*; and secondly *that this action or state of being, should be asserted about something*. If the action is only named and not asserted, the word is not in the true sense a verb, but only a verbal; thus, in *I run, He speaks, run and speak* are verbs; *To run, Speaking*, are verbals.

11. Connected with the adjective and the verb is the participle, which though not a distinct part of speech, yet requires a separate definition.

A participle is a verbal adjective describing the act of which it is the name simply as going on or finished, and not as a quality of that to which it is attributed. It conveys no assertion as the verb does, and is named according to its office, the *Participle Imperfect*, or the *Participle Perfect*. Thus, in *Singing bird*, *singing* is an adjective of quality; in the phrases *The birds are singing, The song is sung, singing* is a participle imperfect, *sung* is a participle perfect.

MEM.—In Latin and Greek there are besides participles which imply that the act ought, or is about, or is intended to take place.

12. A Pronoun is a part of speech, of which the use is to stand in the place of a substantive; and which represents in general both the substantive itself, and some circumstance accidental to that, of which the substantive is the name. Thus, in *I speak; I* stands for the name of the speaker, and represents him as present or distinctly known. In *This is my horse, That is yours; this* and *that* stand each for the word horse, and point out the relative position of the two animals. In *This horse is mine; mine* stands for the word horse, and implies that the speaker claims it for his property.

Obs.—If the Substantive itself is there, the pronoun of course does not stand in the place of it, but is pronominal adjective to it; thus in *This is my horse, this* is a demonstrative pronoun; in *This horse is mine, it* is a demonstrative pronoun adjective.

13. A Conjunction is a part of speech of which the use is to connect propositions together, or like parts of propositions to like parts. (See Nos. 80, 85, 90.)

14. A Preposition is a part of speech of which the use is to connect substantives and pronouns (not pronominal adjectives) with verbs, participles, adjectives, substantives, pronouns; thus, in *He placed the watch in his pocket*; in connects not *his*, but *pocket*, with the verb *placed*. (See No. 88.)

15. An Adverb is a part of speech of which the use is to qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, *He writes well*; *Very true*; *Much more beautiful*.

Obs.—An adjective must not be used in such cases instead of an adverb; it will not do to say *He writes excellent*, or *I am indifferent well*. The adverb is to the parts of speech named in the definition what the adjective is to its substantive.

16. An Interjection is a part of speech of which the use is to express some feeling, or emotion of the mind; as, *Alas!*; *Hurrah!* (See No. 23.)

17. The Articles (*The*, definite; *A*, *An*, indefinite;) are words of which the use is to show whether some particular thing is spoken of or not; as, *This is a horse*, but not *the one I bought*.

MEM.—In Greek there is no indefinite article; in Latin none at all.

18. The same word in different places may serve different purposes, and thus become in each a different part of speech; thus, *Paint* is a substantive; in *Paint-pot*, it is an adjective; in the words *I paint*, it is a verb. In *He was imprisoned for the theft*, *for* is a preposition; in *He was justly punished for he was a thief*, *for* is a conjunction.

19. To find out what part of speech a word is in any one passage, try it by the definitions given above, and see to which of them it answers. In cases of great difficulty try what other word you can put in the place of the one you doubt about; for instance, in *Give me but a crust, but means only*, and is consequently an adverb. *There is no one but loves her*; *but* means *who—not*, and is a conjunctive pronoun.

20. Whatever be the derivation of *A, An*, the indefinite article, its meaning is *Some one*, or *Any one*; for instance, *A man's a man for a' that*; that is to say, *Any (one) man*, (be what he may) is for all that *A (some one) member of the human family*; and possibly a good though not a rich one.

21. NOTE WELL.—The passages printed in large type, in this and the following chapters, must be learned by heart.

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

- Noun, name. Adverb, added to verb.
 Substantive, belonging to what subsists or exists.
 Adjective, requiring to be added on to a substantive.
 Verb, the word specially asserted.
 Participle, partaking of a verb's nature.
 Pronoun, substitute for noun substantive.
 Pronominal, having the nature of a pronoun.
 Conjunction, joining word.
 Preposition, word placed before another.
 Interjection, word thrown in between others.
 Article, turning point, (*in articulo mortis*.) Many persons give the word a different meaning.
 Definition, accurate description.
 Definite, confined to bounds. Emotion, unusual movement
 Accidental to, connected with.
 Attributed to, ascribed to, assigned to.
 Thing, (in this book) whatever is, or takes place, or can be spoken of as such.

CHAPTER II.

SENTENCES AND PROPOSITIONS;—NATURE OF THE VERB.

2. Language is either declaratory, or emotional; both kinds are frequently found in the same passage, (see No. A 20, A 21.) and, so far as grammar is concerned, both are parsed in the same manner.

23 Emotional language is that of which the chief object is to express some emotion (such as fear, horror, pity, love, command, desire), or to obtain information by means of questions; as, *Alas! poor Yorick; Hence horrible shadow; Where are you going? Give place; Oh, for one drop of water*; it is in this kind of language that interjections are found.

24 Declaratory language is that of which the object is to make declarations or assertions; it is made up of sentences.

25. A Sentence is a complete thought expressed in language. It may consist of two or more propositions, or of one only. In every sentence there are as many propositions, as there are verbs. See the definition of a verb in No. 10.

26. A Proposition is any number of words in which one thing is asserted about another. The smallest number of words in which this can be done, of course, is two.

MEM.—By some grammarians a *proposition* is called a *simple sentence*, in contradistinction to a *compound* or *complex sentence*; either of which consists of two or more simple sentences.

27. A Phrase is two or more words connected together in sense, but not containing an assertion. Thus, *To rise early in the morning is conducive to health*, is a

sentence, because the thought is complete; but it consists of only one proposition, because there is only one verb. The first six words of this sentence, taken together, are a Phrase.

28. A Proposition must necessarily be made up of two parts, the subject (or thing spoken of), and the predicate (or what is asserted about the subject).

29. The first word of the Predicate is, of necessity, the verb, *because by means of it the assertion is made*; the rest of the predicate is that, which, when placed after the verb, makes better sense there than in the subject.

30. When the Predicate is taken out of a proposition all the words left in it belong to the subject, except the conjunction (if there be one) at the head of it. The conjunction, (as such), is not part of any proposition, but the link which joins one proposition to another. Several words which serve to connect propositions together are not pure conjunctions; for these words, that is to say, conjunctive adverbs and pronouns. (See No. 87.)

31. When the Subject is taken out of a proposition all that is left in it belongs to the predicate, with the exception already mentioned.

32. The Predicate of a proposition is generally the easiest to find, because there is no mistaking the verb.

33. The Assertive Power of the verb lies in the word *Is*, the logical copula; but, so far as grammar is concerned, the *Is* need not be separated from the verb in which it is contained. Thus, *He dines at twelve*, means, he *Is* usually in the act of dining at twelve; but it is as easy to parse *Dines*, as *Is*.

34. Case (in parsing English) means position or place; in English the cases are the Nominative, the Possessive, (distinguished by the apostrophic 's), and the Objective. A substantive in the possessive case is merely adjective to the word following it.

35. Any act that is done must affect something besides the agent or doer of it, or it must end with the doer and not affect any thing else.

36. A Verb Transitive is the name of an act which passes from the doer of it to something else, which being thus acted on may be termed the *Direct object* or *Receiver* of the act; and this something may be either a substantive, or a pronoun, or a phrase equivalent to a substantive, or a whole proposition; thus, *I left my father in London, but I believe him to be well, and I hope to see him soon; God only knows what is best for us.*

Obs. 1.—Those verbs are followed by a phrase or proposition, which express some inward operation or movement caused by the mind, will, or feelings; such as, *I desire, I purpose, I think, I seem, I dare*; these verbs naturally throw their meaning forwards. Words of this kind, whether verbs, participles, adjectives, or substantives, are termed *Prolative, On-carrying words*.*

Obs. 2.—The Direct object to a verb transitive is that substantive or pronoun between which and the verb no preposition can be introduced; as, *He gave the man a penny*; not *The man to a penny*, but *A penny to the man*.

37. A Verb Intransitive is the name of an act which does not pass from the doer to any thing else; but ends with the doer. There are then two sorts of verbs, transitive and intransitive; but observe, that many words are used both ways; and care must be taken that those which are either always transitive, or always intransitive, are not used contrary to their nature; thus, *The stone rolled down the hill* (intrans.); *He rolled the stone down the hill* (trans.); *I lie, I rise*, always intransitive; *I lay* (pres. tense); *I raise, I trouble*, always transitive. *She lays down, He rose a fish, Madam, don't trouble*, are all incorrect.

* The Author is indebted for the term *Prolative*, and substantially for Obs. 1 to the "Public School Latin Primer."

38. A Verb asserted about the doer of the act named is in the active (doing) voice; that is to say, in the active form of the word; as, *John caught the horse*; here, *caught* is asserted about John, the doer of the act.

39. A Verb asserted about the receiver of the act is in the passive (the receiving or suffering) voice; as, *The horse was caught by John*; here, *was caught* is asserted about horse, to which the act was done.

40. A Verb intransitive cannot be used passively, because there is no receiver of the act, about whom, or which, it can be asserted.

Obs.—In Latin an intransitive verb may be so used in the third person singular of each tense, through a peculiarity in that language; as, *Pugnatum est ad Cannas*; was fought at Cannos.

41. Verbs have Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons; the use of which will be explained at greater length hereafter. (See No. 72, and following numbers.) Here it is sufficient to say, that—

42. The Mood of a verb is the manner of using it to make a declaration, to give a command, &c.

43. The Tense of a verb is the form (or way of spelling) it takes to show the time referred to in the speaker's mind; and the state of the act, as finished or not finished, at that time.

44. The Numbers and Persons of a verb are the forms (ways of spelling) it takes to show about whom (see No. 53) it is asserted, and whether about one thing only, or more things than one.

45. To Conjugate a verb (so far as English is concerned) is to give (when it has them) its two tenses, and its two participles; as, *I love; I loved; Loving; Loved.*

46. To Inflect a tense is to go through its persons and numbers; as, Singular—*I love; Thou lovest; He loves, or loveth; Plural—We love; Ye or you love; They love.*

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

Emotional, expressing some feeling, or movement of the mind.
Subject, laid down to be spoken of.

Predicate, declared, asserted. Copula, link, joining word.

Logical, connected with reasoning.

Transitive, denoting what passes on.

Conjugate, join parts together.

Inflect, give the variations of ending which denote number, and person.

Prolative, bearing the sense forward.

Continuative, receiving the sense, and if need be, continuing it to another word.

Decline, (a substantive or pronoun) give its cases and numbers.

CHAPTER III.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING.—ADDRESSED TO TEACHERS.

These directions are introduced in this place, because, if the teacher wishes his pupil to acquire a knowledge of grammar, he must practice them in parsing as soon as they can say by heart what is to be committed to memory in the two first chapters.

Of course the first thing for a boy to acquire is the ability to distinguish what part of speech each word is in the place where it is found. For this, see No. 19. But the master may greatly assist his pupils in this, at first, difficult process, by setting them for parsing lessons easy sentences, with the prepositions and

words already arranged in the sense order. The boys will then see more clearly, than if left to themselves, what office each word discharges in the passage selected.

The rules are printed in large type, that the pupil may know beforehand what he has to do.

A. If the sentence contain more propositions than one (see No. 25) read them off in their sense order; remembering, that the nominative absolute (see No. 56) and what is joined to it must be treated as a separate proposition; and, that the nominative addressed, and the nominative emotional (see No. 56) are not part of any proposition. Moreover, a descriptive proposition, or phrase (embedded in the subject or predicate of another proposition), must not be separated from that which it describes. Thus, *The wood was thoroughly searched; but, the horse which had strayed not being discovered, the servant returned home.* Here the proposition, *which had strayed*, describes the word *horse*, and cannot be separated from it; but the word *horse* itself is in the nominative absolute, (and with what follows to *discovered* inclusive) forms what is not, but in sense is equal to a proposition; as may be seen thus, *The wood was thoroughly searched, but the servant returned home, when the horse which had strayed was not discovered.*

B. Read off in the sense order the words of each proposition, supplying those which to avoid repetition are omitted in the text, and carefully placing in their right position those which belong to the subject, and those which are part of the predicate. (See Nos. 23, 29.) Point out first the predicate, of which the first word is always the verb, then the subject. Say, why any words or phrases are placed in one of these rather than the other.

Obs.—Emotional words or phrases may be embedded in the subject, or predicate, and must be parsed by themselves; thus,—

“But for my brother not a man would speak,
Nor I (ungracious) speak unto myself
For him, poor soul.”

Sense order—*But not a man would speak for my brother, poor soul, nor would I (ungracious) speak unto myself for him*; and I ungracious would not speak unto myself for him. The words, *poor soul, ungracious*, are emotional; the first expression denoting pity, the second remorse; they stand by themselves in the nominative emotional; (see No. 56,) but if considered as part of the context, *poor soul* would be descriptive of *brother*, and *ungracious* of *I*.

C. State what part of speech each word is, and show what it does in the passage where it is found. Let the pupil now and then be called on to show not only what a word is, but why it is not any other part of speech; why, for instance, an adjective is not a verb, a substantive, &c.

D. In parsing a Verb,
Say, of what sort it is; transitive or intransitive. Conjugate it; give the two tenses, and two participles. Inflect the tense, (in the text), go through the persons in each number. State the mood, tense, number, person, (of the word in the text), what is its nominative, and (if it be transitive), what is its objective?

E. In parsing a Substantive,
Name the sort; proper, common, or abstract. State the number, the case, and the reason for both. State its meaning, if a derivative; whether it denotes the agent, the act of doing, the thing produced, &c. See No. 106, and on.

F. In parsing an Adjective,
Say, of what case it is, and to what substantive it applies, or of what it is said; give its meaning if a derivative. See No. 122 and on.

G. In parsing a Pronoun, (substantive),
State the sort, number, case, gender; pointing out

for what it stands and its accidents ; that is whether it implies personal presence, possession, &c. Parse a pronominal adjective as an adjective, stating its accidents as before. See No. 132 and on.

H. In parsing a Participle,
Conjugate the verb from which it comes. State whether it is perfect, or imperfect ; in what case it is, and (if transitive) what is its objective ? The case of a participle depends on the same circumstances as that of an adjective.

I. In parsing a Conjunction, (a conjunctive word, or phrase) ; say what proposition, or part of a proposition, it connects with what other, and of what sort it is ; that is whether it is causal, illative, &c. See No. 90.

J. In parsing a Preposition,
Say what substantive or pronoun it connects with what other word, and why with that word rather than any other ? See Nos. 87, 90.

K. In parsing an Adverb,
Say what word it qualifies, and in what respect ; that is in time, place, manner, degree, &c. See No. 148.

L. In parsing an Interjection,
Say what emotion it expresses, and the same in the case of emotional language ; and here it may be remarked, that such language being often the expression of intense feeling is not strictly subjected to rule ; but, when it is parsed, requires to have much put in, which in the actual delivery is expressed by the countenance, the tones, and gestures of the speaker.

M. In parsing the Articles,
Say to what word they are prefixed, and for what purpose.

N. Conjunctional Phrases, such as, *In-as-much-as*, *Seeing-that*, may be either parsed as one word, or taken to pieces; thus, *in*, prep. connecting much to something before; *as*, adverb to much; *much*, adj., used substantively; *as*, conjunction; *seeing*, imperf. participle; *that*, conjunction. The first is the simplest process. See No. 148, Obs.

O. How the Compound Tenses, Participles, and Infinitives of Verbs are made up, may be seen in No. 80; and they may be parsed either by taking each word composing them separately or, (as is done in the following instances) by taking the verb separately and treating the rest as one word, its complement in making up the expression required. Thus, *This business should have been arranged differently*; *should*, past indefinite of shall, agreeing with *business*. *Have-been-arranged*, verbal complement to *should*, said about the receiver of the act. *Thomas will have finished by ten o'clock*; *will*, present tense, third person singular agreeing with *Thomas*; *have-finished*, verbal complement to *will* said about Thomas as the agent. *I have lived*; *lived*, perfect participle said about *I*. *He will die*; *die*, infinitive without the prefix *to*, continuative to *will*. *Having been oppressed for many years, the people rose against their enemies; and having defeated them, they became in turn oppressors*; *having-been-oppressed*, compound perfect participle, applying to *people* as receiver of the act; *having-defeated*, compound perfect participle, applying to *they* as the agent. *I did not do it*; *do*, infinitive without the prefix, continuative to *did*. *He is said to have lived at Rome*; *to have lived*, compound infinitive continuative to *said*; *said*, perfect participle, declared about *he* as the receiver. *He is about to die*; *to die*, verbal substantive (infinite mood) connected by the preposition *about* to *is*. *The pig is going to-be-killed*; *to be killed*, compound infinitive, continuative to the participle *going*.

P. Observe, that, for brevity's sake, the words *Substantive*, *Adjective*, *Objective*, *Derivative*, &c., though strictly speaking Adjectives, are often used Substantively throughout this book.

CHAPTER IV.

RULES AND OBSERVATIONS, TOUCHING THE RESOLUTION OF PROPOSITIONS, AND SENTENCES.

47. A Proposition constitutes a whole in itself, and the words composing it depend each for its *case*, person, number, &c., on some other word in the same proposition; with this exception, that pronouns take the *case* required in the proposition of which they are a part, but in all other respects represent the substantives for which they stand, that is their antecedents; which antecedents usually are in a preceding proposition; as, *This is the man whom I hoped to see; These are the men who hoped to see me; He killed himself.*

48. Every word in a Proposition except the true nominative (see No. 67) depends for its case, and any changes in its spelling, on the word (going before it in the sense) with which it has the closest connection; except, that the mood of a verb in many languages depends on the conjunction at the head of its proposition.

Obs.—It is the word going before it *in the sense*, not the word standing before it in position, which is a very different thing.

49. When two Conjunctions come together, the proposition belonging to the first, though first in the sense, is placed after the proposition belonging to the second; and if three conjunctions come together, the propositions belonging to the first and second are placed after the one belonging to the third; as, ¹*For*, ²*if* ³*he is honest*, ¹*he will re-*
¹*turn the money; but*, ¹*if*, ²*when* ³*he is taken*, ¹*the money is found on him,*
¹*he will be punished.* Sense order, *But he will be punished, if the money is found on him, when he is taken.* The same is true if the

first conjunction should have any words attached to it except the verb, and if, without any conjunction at their head, a word or words not belonging to the second proposition should stand before its conjunction; as, *The true christian, though he be of humble station, is essentially a gentleman; But assuredly, if a man, when he wastes his money, loses his character besides, he becomes poor indeed.* Sense order—*The true christian is essentially a gentleman, though he be of humble station; But assuredly a man becomes poor indeed, if he loses his character besides, when he wastes his money.* Hence it will be seen that, in the sense, every conjunction stands at the head of its own proposition, as a captain does at the head of his company.

50. A Preposition always connects the substantive or pronoun (not pronominal adjective) coming next after it with the word going before with which it makes the best sense; as, *They lived in their own house; in,* connects *house* with *lived*, not *their own*, because these words are pronominal adjectives. Prepositions stand before single words, and connect them with other single words; just as conjunctions stand at the head of propositions, and connect them with other propositions.

51. That about which the verb is especially asserted is called its nominative; and as a verb without a nominative conveys no information because it is asserted about nothing, so a nominative wanting a verb is useless, because nothing is said about it.

52. The Verb must agree with its nominative (see No. 67) in number and person; that is to say, must be of the same number and person with it. If a pronoun be the nominative, of course it must be in the nominative form; as, *He went*, not *Him went*; *We spoke*, not *Us spoke*.

53. A man uses the first person Singular (*I, me*) when he speaks of himself only; the first person plural, (*We, Us,*) when he speaks of himself and some other,

or others. A man speaks in the second person singular, when he speaks of the person he is speaking to ; in the second person plural, when he speaks of the persons he is speaking to ; singular forms, *Thou, thee* ; plural forms, *Ye, you*. All words except I, Me, We, Us, Thou, Thee, You, Ye, are of the third person.

54. A Substantive or pronoun is in the singular number, when it stands for one object only ; it is in the plural number, when it stands for more objects than one.

55. As Pronouns stand for substantives, they must represent the person, number, and gender (that is sex) of that for which they stand ; and also the case, in which the substantive in each instance would be, if used itself ; as, *The mare lost her foal*, not *his*, or *my*, or *their* foal ; *The cart is coming towards us*, not *towards we*. *The man who*, (not whom), *we think, did it*.

56. A word may be in the Nominative case under six different conditions ; which for brevity's sake, may be described as those of—

The nom : emotional ; as, *Alas ! poor Yorick*.

The nom : addressed, as, *Come hither, John*.

The nom : to the verb ; as, *Time flies apace*.

The nom : asserted ; as, *Knowledge is power ; Salt is good*.

The nom : descriptive ; as, *Paul the Apostle was a good man*.

The nom : absolute ; as, *The King being dead, the people went home*.

Obs.—This last form of speech is confined chiefly to the participles, *Having, being, and (the phrase) having been*, though other participles are sometimes so used ; see No. A 6. A substantive and participle thus placed together absolutely, that is, independently of the context, have the force of a proposition though no direct assertion is made ; thus the sentence above

quoted might have been, *The people went home, as the king was dead.*

57. The conditions under which a word may be in the Objective case are five, which may be described thus:

The objective after a preposition expressed or understood; as, *he lived a week in London.*

The objective after a transitive verb participle or verbal substantive, or an intransitive verb used transitively: as, *He liked fish, and, relishing that food, he amused himself by catching trout; "He fought a good fight."*

The objective descriptive; as, *Cain slew his brother Abel.*

The subject to a verb in the infinitive; as, *I want him to sing.*

The objective indirectly asserted about the subject of a verb in the infinitive; as, *I believe him to be the man.*

Obs.—The Imperfect Participle of a transitive verb takes an objective case after it; and, in English, the perfect participle does the same if it be used actively; so also does the infinitive mood, and so may the verbal substantive in *ing*; thus, *To spend money is easy enough, the difficulty lies in spending it well. John has caught the horse*; the word *horse* depends on *caught*, not on *has*; the meaning is, not that John has the horse now caught, but that John has finished the act of catching it.

58. One word said (asserted) directly or indirectly about another is in the same case with it; as, *Health is a great blessing.*

59. One word describing another is in the same case with it; as, *John, the brother of James; A black horse.*

60. Two things compared with each other, by aid of the conjunctions *Than* and *As*, are in the same

case with one another, being like parts of similar propositions; as, *He is taller than she; I like him better than her.* Unless *than* can be used as a preposition, such a sentence as *I hate pirates, than whom no men are more cruel*, is incorrect; it should be *than who*; the sentence resolved would be *I hate pirates, for no men are more cruel than they (are).* See No. 87 on the resolution of conjunctive pronouns.

61. In Latin and Greek the equivalent to *Than* is generally omitted after a comparative, and then the second of the things compared is put in the ablative or genitive case, according as the language be Latin or Greek.

62. The Pronoun *It*, and the adverb *There*, are frequently used in English merely to enable the speaker to put the nominative after the verb; in such cases, *There* is not an adverb of place; thus, *There was a man, whose name was John*, that is, *A man was (lived), whose name was John; It is good to be merry and wise*; that is, *To be merry and wise is good.* The equivalents to *It* and *There* are never so used in Latin or Greek.

63. The Infinitive Mood of a verb is not a verb, but a verbal substantive, differing from the verbal substantive in *ing* in this, that it is simply the name of an act without any limitation or qualification whatsoever; whereas the verbal in *ing* implies the doing of the act; thus, *To dine is agreeable, but dining is an agreeable occupation.*

64. The Infinitive Mood of a verb, as part of a proposition, is either continuative of the sense after a prolative word; as, *I am glad to see you; He wishes to die* (see No 36, Obs. 1); or expresses the final purpose; as, *He went to fetch water*; or, with as well as without other words joined to it, is the nominative to a verb, or the objective after it; as, *To die is gain; To do good, and to distribute, forget not.*

Obs.—Any phrase may be the nominative or objective to a verb, as indeed may a whole proposition; thus, *To do good is a Christian duty*; *He preferred to serve his country*; “*Thou shalt not steal*” *is written in the Bible*; *God said to the disobedient prophet*, “*thou shalt eat no bread nor drink water there.*”

65. When in a sentence there are more Propositions than one, the leading proposition is that which has no conjunction before it, if such a one there be; and every proposition which is introduced by a conjunction is by that conjunction connected with the proposition going before it with which it makes the best sense. But observe, sentences may follow each other by continuity of thought without the aid of conjunctions.

66. Any words in the subject of a proposition over and above the true nominative may be called its complement; and in like manner whatever is found in the predicate except the verb is in the complement of the predicate.

67. By the *True Nominative* is meant that word in the subject about which the verb is really asserted, stripped of those which may be associated with it.

68. When the subject consists of several words, in order to find out the true Nominative, take out of it all adjectives, participles, adverbs, prepositions, words in the objective case and substantives describing other substantives; what is then left will be the true nominative; thus, *Walking sleepily by a river's side in fine weather he fell into the stream*; the true nominative is the word *He*.

Obs. 1.—The nominative is often omitted when the sense is quite clear, so also is the whole subject; so too is the whole or a part of the predicate; the object in such cases being to avoid useless repetition; thus, *A dutiful son honours and cherishes his parents.*

Obs. 2.—In English the nominative must always stand near its verb; if a proposition come between them it should be a descriptive one; as, *The few who made their escape were captured in the end.*

"The fiery courser, when he hears from far
The sprightly trumpets and the shouts of war,
Pricks up his ears."

69. In declaratory language, especially if it be prose, the nominative usually stands, in the text, before the verb; but in emotional language this is not the case. In English when a question is asked the nominative is put after the verb, unless an interrogative pronoun (see No. 144) is used, or the question is asked with the voice only; as, *Is George come? George come? who expects him?* In giving a command the usual place of the nominative, (which is always either thou, ye, or you), is after the verb; it is not expressed unless it is emphatic; as in, *Be ye not as the hypocrites; Thou therefore endure hardness.* Moreover, the nominative often follows the verb when a wish is expressed; as, *May good digestion wait on appetite, and health on both.*

70. A Proposition in the active form may be altered into one, having a passive form by merely changing places with the nominative and objective, if a corresponding change be made in the verb; thus, *The father stole the horse, but the son was arrested by the constable;* or *The horse was stolen by the father, but the constable arrested the son.*

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

Constitutes, makes up.

Antecedent, word going before.

Complement, that which helps to fill up (the pred. or subject).

Substitute, that which stands in the place of something else.

Continuity, holding on, (of the sense).

Text, the words as they stand in the passage.

Context, the words of a passage taken in connection with some other word.

Final purpose, the intention with which something is done.

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ABOUT VERBS.

71. The man, who names and asserts an act, may regard it in his own mind and speak of it as still going on, or as completed, in part, present, or future time; and this, as either completed simply, or as completed with reference to something else also finished. The verb in different languages is varied more or less in its form to express these particulars; and these several forms or modes of spelling are called its tenses.

72. Again the verb may be altered in its spelling to express a positive assertion, or a qualified (a subordinate) one, or a command, or a wish; and these forms are termed its moods. Thus for instance:—

The Indicative mood is the manner of using the verb in order to make an assertion.

The Imperative mood is the manner of using the verb with a view to give a command.

The Infinitive mood is the simple name of the act with (in English) the prefix *To*; as, *To love*, *To sing*.

With a slight exception mentioned afterwards, (see No. 77), these are the only moods in English; in Latin and Greek there are more.

73. Again, there are changes of spelling in the tenses, to shew whether one thing is spoken of, or more things than one; so each tense has a singular and plural number.

74. Again, each number has a form of spelling, to shew whether the speaker himself is spoken of, or the person addressed, or anything else; in other words, each number has three persons, the first, second, and third.

75. Once more, the verb may be asserted about the doer, or the receiver of the act; and in languages where its form is varied to express this, it is said to be in the active voice, or the passive, according as it is declared about the agent, or the recipient of the act.

76. But in any language those only are in a proper sense moods, or tenses, or numbers, or persons, or voices of a verb, which are formed by some addition to, or alteration in the root, which is really the name of the act.

77. Thus, whilst in Latin the verb has a variety of forms to express these several things, and in Greek still more; the English verb has no passive voice, only two tenses, two participles, and one infinitive. Unlike its representative in the languages just named, it has no conjunctive, or subjunctive mood, except that, in the case of the verb *To be*, *be* is used instead of the now usual indicative *Am*, *Art*, *Is*, *Are*; and *Were*, *Wert*, are used instead of the indicative *Was*, *Wast*; except also that the *st*, *s*, and *th*, may be dropped in the second and third persons singular of other verbs; thus, *If I were in his place*; *Though he fall, he shall rise again*.

Obs.—*Were* is sometimes used for *Would*, *Should be*, &c., as, *If it were done, when 'tis done, then 'twere well, it were done quickly*; that is, *If the deed should be, or is to be done, then it would be well, (so far as the time when it is done is concerned), that it should be done quickly*. *O, that I were a glove upon that hand*; that is, *O that I was, might, or could be a glove upon that hand*.

78. This is the whole of the English verb:—
 Present imperfect, I love.
 Past perfect indefinite, I loved.
 Participle imperfect, Loving.
 Participle perfect, Loved.
 Infinitive mood, To love.
 The words in large type are the names to be used.

79. But, though the English verb in itself is very defective, there are means of expressing every thing which can be said in other languages by simply combining words together in the form of what are usually called compound tenses.

80. These Compound Tenses are made up of certain verbs, (called auxiliary or helping verbs when so used), joined with one or more participles, or the infinitive without the prefix *To*. And here observe, that the past indefinite of a verb must never be used instead of the perfect participle in such phrases, nor on the other hand must the participle be put for the past indefinite. Thus, *He drank (not drunk) the wine*, and *The wine was drunk, not drank*.

81. Subjoined are the compound tenses alluded to, so far as the indicative mood of the active and passive voices is concerned; and they take their names from the things which constitute a tense.

82. Tense means simply Time; but in practice it embraces three considerations essential to the verb; first, the time referred to in the speaker's mind, whether past, present, or future; secondly, the state of the act at that time, whether perfect (finished), or imperfect (still going on); and thirdly, if the act is spoken of as perfect, whether it is so indefinitely (simply), or definitely with reference to something else also finished.

83. The words in the following table give the full name of each tense: to save time in parsing *I dine* is simply called the present tense; *I dined*, the past:

THE ACTIVE VOICE.

TIME.	STATE OF THE ACT.	FORCE OF THE EXPRESSION.
Present	Imperfect - {	I dine - - - - - Simple assertion.
	I am dining - {	Emphasis on continuation of the act.
	I do dine - - - {	Emphasis on the performance of the act.
	Perfect - {	Simple assertion.
Past	I have dined - {	Simple assertion.
	I have been dining - {	Emphasis on continuation of the act.
	I was dining - - - {	Emphasis on continuation of the act.
	Imperfect - {	I dined - - - Simple assertion.
Future	Indefinite (or Aorist) {	I did dine - { Emphasis on performance of the act.
	I had dined {	Emphasis on completeness of the act before a fixed time past.
	I had been dining - {	Emphasis on the act's having been in progress before a fixed time past
	Imperfect - {	Simple assertion - { see No. 97 on "shall" and "will".
Future	I shall dine - - - {	Simple assertion - {
	I will dine - - - {	Simple assertion - {
	I shall be dining - - - {	Emphasis on continuation of act.
	I will be dining - - - {	Emphasis on continuation of act.
Future	Imperfect - {	Emphasis on completeness of the act before a fixed time future.
	I shall have dined - {	Emphasis on completeness of the act before a fixed time future.
	I will have dined - - {	Emphasis on completeness of the act before a fixed time future.
	Perfect - - - {	Forms of the future definite.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

TIME		STATE OF THE ACT.		FORCE OF THE EXPRESSION.	
Present	{	Imperfect -	I am being stricken*	{	Verberor, emphasis on continuation of the act.
		Perfect -	I have been stricken -		Simple assertion.
Past	{	Imperfect -	I was being stricken* -	{	Verberabar, emphasis on continuation of the act.
		Perfect -	Indefinite - Definite -		I was stricken, simple assertion. I had been stricken, emphasis on completeness of the act before a fixed time past.
Future	{	Imperfect -	I shall (or will) be being stricken* -	{	Verberabor, emphasis on continuation of the act.
		Perfect -	I shall, or will be stricken I shall, or will have been stricken -		Simple assertion. Definite form, emphasis on completeness of the act before a time fixed in the future.

N.B.—Ego vapulando, illis verberando, usqueambo defecit semus. Ter.

Obs. 1.—Certain Intransitive Verbs such as *Come, Go*, form the present perfect and the past definite indifferently with either *Have, or Am* ; for instance, *I am come, or I have come*.

Obs. 2.—The phrases in the table marked thus * are used little or not at all in English, though the corresponding tenses may be found in Latin and Greek. Instead of them we use the active forms, *He is striking me, he was striking me, he will be striking me* ; or phrases of this kind may be employed, *The wall was in the course of being built, the wall was in building*.

84. The Verbs *Am, Be*, (two distinct verbs meaning the same, and used to make up one verb), differ from all other verbs, and are called the verb substantive ; that is the verb by which subsistence or existence simply is named and asserted ; all other verbs are the name of some action or particular state of being, as *I move*, that is, *I am moving* ; *I live*, that is, *I am living* ; but *I am*, declares existence and nothing more. By the simple tenses of the verb *Am or be* it is only asserted that something *Is* in the past, present, or future.

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

Indicative, declaratory, used for making assertions.

Imperative, suited for giving commands.

Mood, manner of using the verb.

Prefix, word placed before another.

Recipient, receiver.

Essential, necessary to the nature of (the verb).

Subordinate, (assertion), an assertion in some way dependent on one proceeding it.

Imperfect, describing the act as still going on.

Perfect, describing the act as completed.

CHAPTER VI.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS CHIEFLY AFFECTING CONJUNCTIONAL
WORDS AND VERBS.

85. The pure Conjunction is not part of the proposition at the head of which it stands, but is, as it were, the hinge connecting it with the one preceding in the sense; on the other hand, mixed conjunctions must be considered part of the proposition which follows them.

86. The mixed conjunctions are either conjunctive adverbs, that is half conjunction, half adverb; or, conjunctional pronouns, that is half conjunction, half pronoun.

87. The Conjunctional Adverbs are
When and then.
Where and there.
Whence . . . and thence.
Whither . . . and thither.
Whilst. and during this time.
Whether . . either if, or if.

The Conjunctional Pronouns are
Who . . and he, she, they, this, &c.
Which . and it, they, them, this, &c.
What that which, &c.
Whose . . and his, her, their, &c.
Whom . and him, her, them, &c.
That . . meaning *Who* or *which*.
But meaning *Who* not.
As in answer to *Such*.

together with compounds from any of these roots; such as, *Wherefore, whosoever, whereupon.*

Obs. 1.—*And* is not the only conjunction used in resolving these mixed parts of speech; *But, for, because, therefore,* and others, will sometimes better express the meaning; but this can only be discovered by changing the order of the propositions connected, and then resolving the word in question. For instance, *This is the man whom I saw; I saw a man, and this is he; He said no more when he saw she wished it to be so; He saw she wished it to be so, and therefore (or and then) he said no more.*

Obs. 2.—Conjunctive pronouns are commonly called relatives; but as all pronouns relate to their antecedents, and are therefore relative, the term *conjunctive* is applied to such words in this book, as indicating their true nature.

88. All words are names either of a thing really existing, or of an act, or of some conception of the mind. Conjunctions and prepositions, respectively, are the names of that connection, which in each place where they are used is conceived to exist between the propositions, or words, they join together. For instance, in the words *I travelled from London to Exeter*, the preposition *to*, conveys the notion of going nearer to an object; the preposition *from*, that of going away from it.

89. On this principle it is, that Conjunctions are classified according to the connection which they indicate between the propositions they join together; thus,

90. The Conjunctions For, because, since, and other words and phrases having the same meaning, add on the cause to the effect, and are termed causal; as, *He was ruined (effect), because he would not listen to good advice (cause)*. But the cause may be stated first, and the effect added afterwards; as for instance, *He would not listen to good advice, therefore he was ruined*.

Therefore, then (in the sense of therefore), so, and conjunctive expressions adding on the effect to the cause, and termed illative.

If, and such like conjunctions, are named conditional, as stating the condition on which something will take place; as, *If he is diligent, he will prosper*.

Though, although, albeit, and the like, are called concessive, as denoting that something is conceded, or granted; these are generally followed by such words as *Yet, nevertheless, &c.*, which in such cases may be considered as an

adverbial part of the conjunctive phrase, laying an emphasis on what is asserted in the next proposition. Thus, *Although he is poor, yet he is honest*; granted *he is poor*, emphatically asserted *he is honest*.

And, is a copulative conjunction, merely adding one proposition to another.

But, and any words serving the same purpose are called adversative, as expressing opposition, or difference.

Or and nor are disjunctive; that is, they lay an emphasis on the distinctness of the propositions they connect.

Both, either, neither, when they form a conjunctive phrase with *and*, *or*, *nor*, are emphatic adverbs; as, *He both feared, and hated him*; *He loved neither the one, nor the other*. But these three words may also be used as substantives or adjectives; as, *He chose both*; *neither of them escaped*.

As, in answer to *such*, is a conjunctive pronoun; in answer to *so*, it is a conjunction; standing for *so*, it is an adverb. Thus, *Such persons, as live a virtuous life, are as happy as they are wise*.

That may be, firstly, a conjunctive pronoun, *The man that I saw*; secondly, a demonstrative pronoun, *That is my horse*; thirdly, a demonstrative pronominal adjective, *That horse is mine*; fourthly, a conjunction, *He said, that he liked it*; fifthly, *that you see on the slate, is not that that, that the boy rubbed out*. In the following passage, one *that* is a substantive, *That that*, *That* is always a pronoun when who, whom, or which, can be used instead of it.

91. The Conjunction *that*, is frequently omitted; so also are the conjunctive pronouns, *That*, *whom*, and *which*, when objectives to a verb, so likewise is the preposition *to*, as are occasionally other prepositions. Thus, *I know (that) you love me*; *This is the horse (which) he rode*; *My father gave (to) me a book*; *He walked (over) a mile*; *He lived (through) two years*; *This pig*

is worth (is in worth, in value) a sovereign; It is worth while to go there, to go there is (in worth, or value, equal to) the while it will take to do it; or worth may be short sometimes for worthy, thus, It is worthy of while; Woe worth the day; i.e., The day is worthy (deserving) of woe. Generally speaking it is the case, (to one, in the judgment of one) speaking generally, it is the case; or the expression may be explained thus, (in the sense of) speaking generally it is the case. I shall go fishing, (a, at) fishing; the wall was then building (in the) building.

OBS.—The conjunctive pronoun is never omitted in Latin; but prepositions are left out to a much greater extent than in English; because in that language, changes in the terminations of substantives, and pronouns, often stand in lieu of prepositions.

92. *Before and after*, meaning *before that, after that*, are conjunctions; as, *I will go and see him, before I die.*

93. The word *To* as prefix to the infinitive, (whatever it may be), is not a preposition; unless it be considered such, when it denotes the final purpose; as in the sentences *They went to buy bread; To tell the truth, I did it myself.*

94. The phrase, *A friend of my father's*, may be explained thus, *A (some one) friend of my father's friends; Sister, mother of mine*; that is, *sister, mother (one of the things that are) mine. That dog of yours is savage*; that is, *that dog (one of the dogs that are yours) is savage.*

95. Redundant expressions, that is phrases containing unnecessary words, are incorrect. Such as these for instance, *This here man; That there woman; This is more better still; She is the most sweetest girl I ever see; I did not go for to hurt you; He will not do so no more; This is the book what (that which) I left; James, he went to plough*; though this last expression (the double nominative) is occasionally met with in poetry and in emotional, or otherwise emphatic language; as in, *The deck, it was their field of fame; The Lord, he is the God; Young and old, all perished.*

96. The Verbal in *ing* may be an adjective; as, *Running water*; or a participle, *As the water is running*; or a substantive, *As his style of running is first-rate*. The verbal in *Ing* is always a substantive, when, standing by itself, it is the nominative to a verb, or the objective to a verb or preposition, or it is preceded by one of the articles.

97.

SHALL AND WILL.

I shall dine	}	Speaker intends the thing, or
I shall be drowned		thinks it probable.
I will dine	}	Speaker intends the thing with
I will be drowned		more, or less determination.
Thou wilt dine	{	Speaker intends more or less de-
Thou wilt be drowned		cidedly, that the person ad-
		dressed shall do the act, or
		thinks it will happen.
Thou shalt dine	{	Speaker intends more or less de-
Thou shalt be drowned		cidedly, that the person ad-
		dressed shall do the act, or
		have it done to him.
He, she, shall dine	{	Speaker intends more or less de-
He, she, shall be drowned		cidedly, that the person spoken
		of shall do the act, or have it
		done to him or her.
He, she, will dine	{	Speaker asserts more or less de-
He, she, will be drowned		cidedly, that the person spoken
		of will do the act or have the
		act befall him or her.

Oh! dear! I will be drowned, and nobody shall save me.

98. List of Verbs used as auxiliaries:

I am, I was, being, been; I do, I did, doing, done;
 I have, I had, having, had; I shall, I should;
 I can, I could; I will, I would;
 I may, I might; I must; I ought.

Obs. 1.—The two last are put in as being used in translating the Latin verbal in *duo*.

Obs. 2.—In English these verbs are all of them in the indicative mood, though they are used in translating the subjunctive form of the language just named. *Have*, as an auxiliary, must be considered intransitive.

99. In such phrases as, *It hails, It freezes, It thunders*, that for which *it* stands seems to be contained in the verb; thus, *it thunders* means *it is thundering*; that is to say, *thundering is going on*. See No. 40 Obs.

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

Resolving, separating the adverbial from the conjunctive part.
Classified, arranged in classes.

Indicate, declare to exist; also, show, point out.

Causal, expressive of the cause.

Illative, denoting an inference or conclusion.

Concessive, denoting that something is granted or admitted.

Copulative, joining or coupling.

Adversative, expressing opposition.

Disjunctive, expressing separation of one thing from another.

Emphasis, stress.

Optative, expressing a wish.

Redundant, containing more than is necessary.

Subjunctive mood, form of the verb intended to show that it comes after and depends on a preceding assertion.

CHAPTER VII.

FOR BOYS WHO USE NO ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

100. By God's blessing upon the human understanding, man has been enabled to invent marks to represent the sounds of his voice; these marks are called *Letters*; and, by their aid, one man can make known his thoughts and feelings to another, just as clearly, as if he had spoken. The sounds called words are either simple, or made up of parts, and therefore able to be divided into them. Thus the sound represented by *A* is not divisible; but the sounds represented by *Cat*, and *Cake*, are that of *A*, with something before and after it.

101. The perfectly simple sounds are called *Vowels*, and are represented in English by the letters *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

A vowel, then, is a simple sound of the human voice. But there are sounds, of which either no notion at all, or no complete notion, can be given, without the help of a vowel sound united with them. The letters representing these non-vowel sounds are called *consonants*, (letters sounding with vowels.)

102. A *Consonant*, then, is a sound of the human voice, which to be expressed must be joined with a vowel.

103. Those consonants, which cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, are called *Mutes*, (dumb letters); those, which can be imperfectly sounded without such aid, are called either *Liquids*, (fluent consonants), or *Spirants*, (breath letters).

The liquids are l, m, n, r. The mutes are b, c, d, g, k, p, q, t. The spirants are f, h, j, s, v, with w and y when not vowels.

X and s are called double consonants, as representing two sounds united; *s* is equal *k s*, *s* to *d s*.

The consonants are also classified according to the organs of speech (see No. 4) most used in their full pronunciation; thus:

B, f, p, v, m, w, are Labials, or lip letters. D, t, n, r, l, s, are Linguals, or tongue letters. O hard, g, k, h, x, are Gutturals, or throat letters. The consonants depending mainly on the same organs of speech are often exchanged for one another; as, *This is ours, for ours; God's blood!—Up to the preaches, you rascals! will you not up to the preaches? For look you, th' athorsary is dight himself four yards under the countermine; by Chesus, I think 'a will glow up all.*—Hen. 5th.

104. Two Vowel sounds united are called a Diphthong (double sound), three, a Triphthong, as, *Oil, beau*. A vowel sounded by itself is a Syllable; as, *I*. One, two, or more consonant sounds pronounced with that of a vowel so as to make one common sound are also a syllable; as, *Fig, though, gruff*.

105. In every word there are as many syllables as there are vowels, taking out one for each diphthong, two for a triphthong, and one for *e* mute at the end of a word. Thus, *Oil, beau, come*, are each of one syllable. The division of words into syllables and the placing of the right letters in the right places, constitute the art of spelling.

SUBSTANTIVES.

106. The most useful division of Substantives is into proper, common, and abstract.

Obs.—The term *Concrete* as applied to substantives, would only be in the way in a book of this kind.

107. A proper Substantive is a name peculiar to one thing; as, *London, James, the Lugg, January, Monday*.

108. A Common Substantive is the name of a class of things, and also of each individual in that class. *Dog*, for instance, is the name of a species of animal, and of each animal belonging to that species. The verbal substantive in *ing* is sometimes common, sometimes abstract.

109. An Abstract Substantive is the name of a quality or attribute spoken of as though it had a separate existence; as, *Goodness, wickedness*. (See No. 9, Obs. 3.) The infinitive mood of a verb, as, *To run*, comes under this head.

110. There are three cases (or positions), (See No. 34) in which a Substantive may be placed; the nominative, the objective, the possessive. The last is the shortening of a Saxon form in *es, or is*; as, *My father's house* for *my fatheres, or fatheris house*. When the word in the nominative ends in *s*, the mark of apostrophe is put after that letter, otherwise before it; as, *My father's house*; *The abbess' castle*.

111. As has been said already, a Substantive is in the singular number when it stands for one object only, in the plural when it stands for more objects than one; as, *Horse, horses*.

112. A Substantive which represents one object made up of many individuals is called a substantive of number; and may be considered as singular or plural, according as the speaker views it in his mind; for instance, *The crowd* (a mass of people) *rushes out*; *The crowd* (a great many separate people) *rush out*.

Many substantives as *Gold, silver*; together with abstract terms (as such) have no plural; thus, *Virtue alone is happiness below*; here *virtue* is used as an abstract term. *The cardinal virtues are Faith, Hope, and Charity*; here *virtues* is used as a common substantive. Other substantives have no singular, as, *Bellows, tongs, scissors*; others have one meaning in the singular, another in the plural; as, *The golden mean*, (middle course); *The means of accomplishing his purpose*, i.e. (the way in which he did it). In such cases the verb or pronoun sometimes agrees with the sense, sometimes with the number of the word; as, *Fetch me the tongs, here they are*; *This is the means by which he effected it*. In other cases also, in English (as in Latin and Greek), the pronoun may agree with the sense rather than the word.

113. The ordinary rules for forming the Plural of substantives may be found in any grammar; here it is sufficient to note these:—

Substantives ending with a single *f*, or *fe*, generally change it into *ves*, as, *Loaf*, *loaves*; *knife*, *knives*. Substantives ending in *y* preceded by a vowel merely add *s*, as, *Valley*, *valleys*; if the *y* is preceded by a consonant, it is changed into *ies*, as, *Beauty*, *beauties*.

An old Saxon ending of the plural was, *en*, as, *Brother*, *brotheren*; *Sow*, *sowen*, *swine*; *Cow*, *cowen*, *kine*.

114. All things which have a separate existence, or which can be spoken of as such, must be either of the male sex, or of the female sex, or of neither.

115. Therefore the Substantives, which represent them, must be of the masculine, or feminine gender, or applicable to both genders, or neuter; that is to say of neither gender.

116. The names of males, male occupations, professions, dignitaries, &c., are masculine; as, *Bull*; *Emperor*.

117. The names of females, female occupations, &c., are feminine; as, *Cow*, *spinster*.

118. Those which apply to both sexes are common; as, *Horse*, *pig*, *goat*, *adviser*.

119. All others are neuter; but by Englishmen, a ship, whatever her name, is termed *She*; as, *There she lay all the day, in the bay of Biscay, O*.

120. The most common distinguishing feminine terminations are *ess*, as, *abbess*; *ix*, as, *executrix*; and *ine*, *heroine*.

121. The Masculine terminations best worth remembering are these: namely,

An, ant, ent, ar, er, ist, or; these generally denote a male agent; as, *Musician, applicant, student, registrar, commander, baptist, malefactor.*

122. The terminations *Ance, once, ancy, ency, ion, ing, ment*, affixed to verbal substantives generally denote either the act of doing what the verb means, or the result of doing it; as, *Temperance, adherence, constancy, Agency, contraction, singing, amusement.*

ADJECTIVES.

123. Adjectives in English undergo no change to express number, gender, or case; they are of the same case as the substantive, or pronoun, to which they apply, or of which they are asserted. This is also true of participles. In Latin and Greek, both these parts of speech must follow the number, gender, and case of their substantive, because they change their terminations so as to indicate these particulars.

124. An adjective is the name of a quality or other attribute, (see No. 9), and most qualities, with some attributes, may be found in one thing more or less than they can be in another. Thus, one man may be *rich*, a second *richer* than the first, a third the *richest* of the three, or the *richest* of men. One man may be *kind*, another less *kind*, a third the *least kind* of the three, or of all mankind.

125. These three forms of speech are generally called the three degrees of comparison, that is to say, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. The first man is *rich* as compared with a man who has less, the second is *richer* as compared with the first, the third is *richest* as compared with the other two, or with all alluded to.

126. Adjectives of more than one syllable are not often compared by means of the terminations *er* and *est*; those of more than two syllables never are; as, *Big, bigger, biggest*; but not *Beautiful, beautifuler, beautifullest*.

127. The Comparative and Superlative must never be doubled (see No. 95); as, in *More handsomer, least wisest*.

128. Adjectives naming a quality which exists in its completeness if it exists at all, cannot have any comparative forms; as for instance, *True, honest, square, golden*. One thing cannot be *truer* or *squarer* than another; if it is *not true*, it is *untrue*; if *not square*, it is *of some other shape*; if *not honest*, it is *dishonest*; if *not of gold*, it is *of some other material*.

129. Adjectives must not be used as adverbs; though this is occasionally done in poetry, and in familiar dialogue. Thus, *He rode excellent well*, is wrong.

130. Adjectives ending in *ous, ose, ful, some*, denote fulness or abundance; as, *Plenteous, verbose, bountiful, burdensome*.

131. Those ending in *able, ible, uble, tive*, denote liability to, or capacity for what the root means; as, *Chargeable, flexible, voluble, sensitive*,

132. Those ending in *less*, or beginning with *in*, and *im, un, il, ir, ig*, for *in*, denote the being without what the root means; as, *Ineffectual, impossible unwelcome, illegal, irregular, ignoble, careless*.

PRONOUNS.

133. Pronouns are divided into Personal, Possessive, Demonstrative, Conjunctional, Interrogative, Indefinite.

134. Personal pronouns are those which stand for the name of something which has life, or is spoken of as such; and of these *I, we, me, us, thou, thee, ye, you, and the possessives derived from them*, imply that the speaker and person spoken to are actually present, or considered as such. *It* is personal only when it answers to the definition above given.

135. Possessive pronouns are those which imply possession.

136. Demonstrative pronouns are those which point out the relative position of things, as nearer, or farther off.

137. Conjunctional pronouns, besides representing a substantive, have in them a conjunctive power, and serve to connect propositions with each other.

Obs.—Most of the conjunctional pronouns are used in asking questions, and they are then called *interrogative*.

138. Indefinite pronouns imply something undetermined as to number, quantity, degree, &c., in that to which they apply, or for which they stand.

139. The personal Pronouns are *I, we, me, us, thou, thee, ye, you, he, him, she, her*; with *They, them, it*, when these last stand for that which has, or is considered as having life.

Obs.—*Ye* must not be used in the objective, nor *them* as an adjective, as in *I see ye*; *Them people*. When *self* or *own* are added to any pronouns or pronominal words, the former lays an emphasis on the identity or sameness, the latter on the fact of possession; the former is sometimes substantive, sometimes adjective, the latter always adjective; as, *mine own* (adj.); *my-self* (sub.); *them-selves* (adj.)

140. *My, thy, our, your, their, it's, and her* as a possessive, are always Pronominal Adjectives; as, *My house, her mother, their gig*.

141. *Ours, yours, theirs, hers*, are always possessive pronouns; as, *This estate is theirs, &c.*

142. The possessives *Mine, thine, his*, may be used substantively or as adjectives; as, *Thine eye*; *The garden is thine*.

143. The demonstrative Pronouns are *This, these, that, those*; they may be used either as pronouns, or as pronominal adjectives; as, *This is my hat*; *This hat is mine*; *this* implies nearer position; *that* a more distant one

144. The conjunctive Pronouns are *Who, whose, whom, which, what, and their compounds*; *that*, meaning *who or which*; *but*, meaning *who not*; and *as*, in answer to *such*. These words, standing by themselves, are pronouns; but added to a substantive they become pronominal adjectives; as, *Whatever things are honest, whatever things are true, &c.*

Obs. i.—These same words *Who, which, &c.*, when used in asking questions, or such of them as are so used, are then called *interrogatives*; as, *Who did this? Ever, and soever*, added to these words, as in *whosoever*, give them an indefinite signification, like the termination *cunque* added to *qui* in Latin.

Obs. 2.—*Who, whose, whom*, refer only to *rational* creatures ; *which*, (according to modern usage) not to things possessing reason, but to all others ; thus, *The man whom (not which) we saw ; The horse which (not whom) we like*.

145. The indefinite Pronouns really are indefinite adjectives relating to number, quantity, quality, and degree, which (see No. 12.) can only be considered pronouns when they stand for substantives, and are not merely added to them. They are these, *Any, some, each, other (with their compounds) one, ones (in such phrases as one might suppose, all my little ones), either, neither, none, all, many, both, few, several, such, much, more, most, and such like. No* (when not an adverb), and *every*, are simply adjectives. Any adjective representing a substantive is for the nonce a pronoun or a substantive.

146. As pronouns vary their form to express number and sex, of course such expressions as *These* sort of people, are incorrect.

147. *What*, as a conjunctive pronoun, is equivalent to *that which* ; as, *This is what he said* ; (that which).

Enough for the purpose of this book has been said about verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, participles, and the articles.

148. Of Adverbs it is sufficient to remark, that they are called adverbs of time, place, manner, quantity, degree, number, &c., according as they modify (qualify) the meaning of the word to which they are applied in one, or another of these particulars ; for instance. *Now, then*, are adverbs of time ; *There, here*, of place ; *Well, badly*, of manner ; *More, less*, of quantity or degree ; *Once, twice*, of number.

Obs.—An adverb and a preposition sometimes come together so as to have a joint meaning and to constitute in sense one word as in the phrases *Long-before* dusk, *shortly-after* sunrise. This is also the case with prepositions ; two or more of which at times

unite in expressing one idea, as in the phrase *From-among* the sheepfolds. Conjunctional phrases are formed in the same manner. (See No. N.)

EXPLANATION OF WORDS.

Interrogative, question—asking.

Comparative, greater, or less, on being compared.

Superlative, greatest, or least, on being compared.

Syllable (taken together), one or more letters forming one combined sound

CAPITAL LETTERS.

149. Capital letters should be placed at the beginning of all proper substantives, including of course the name of the Supreme Being, however designated, whether by substantives or pronouns; as, *John, Manchester, the Loire, Jehovah, the Almighty.*

150. Secondly: At the beginning of the names of months, days of the week, persons of rank, events of importance, &c., when such words, or phrases, are used as proper, not as common names; thus, *The Great Rebellion wrought much good and much evil; many rebellions cause only the latter; All queens are not like the Queen of England; Major General Burgoyne; He came in April; severe april storms.*

151. Thirdly: At the beginning of adjectives derived from the names of nations, countries, cities, &c.; as, *The French fleet; He was a Londoner.*

152. Fourthly: The pronoun I, and the interjection O, must be expressed by capitals.

153. Fifthly: The first word in every sentence must begin with a capital, as also must the first word after a full stop, or a note of interrogation; moreover the same rule holds good of the first word in every line of poetry, and the first word of a quotation introduced in the text.

EMPHASIS AND PUNCTATION.

154. If the chief object in speaking and writing is to have that clearly understood which is spoken and written, then it is of the highest importance, that language should be perspicuous; in other words, that its meaning should be seen through as it is delivered.

Now the first thing necessary to ensure perspicuity is the right arrangement of words, propositions, and sentences; so that each shall perform its proper office, and the current of thought shall flow smoothly on. But besides paying attention to this, the speaker, who wishes to be fully and easily understood, must lay emphasis on those words and phrases, which he wishes to place in contradistinction to others; and must pause in his delivery at such places, and for such a length of time at each, as will assist the comprehension of his hearers.

155. Emphasis is stress, or increased volume of voice, laid on the words or passages, to which it is intended to call special attention as being opposed to some thing else; and the using it rightly is of the utmost consequence both in speaking and reading aloud; because the misplacing of it may produce a most ridiculous effect, or render what is said altogether unintelligible. Men who are speaking for themselves rarely offend in this matter, because nature directs them where to lay the stress; but persons reading aloud, who in effect are the speakers of other men's thoughts and feelings, frequently commit the most absurd blunders, and entirely mislead their audience.

156. The *words* on which emphasis should be laid are not usually marked out in written language; it is left to the common sense or the industry of the reader to discover them. But the *pauses* made by a good speaker, to a great extent, are indicated by stops, if what he says is placed on paper; they are not so pointed out entirely, because not unfrequently a speaker is led by a kind of instinct to make a momentary pause where it aids the sense, without its being exactly recognized by the rules of grammar.

157. In short, the pauses, made both in correct speaking and reading, depend in part on the sense of what is being delivered, and partly on its natural separation into propositions and sentences. In written language only the latter are represented by stops.

158. The stops, or points, used in English are subjoined; and, as they are there arranged, they stand to each other in the relation of 1, 2, 3, 4, in respect to the length of pause they indicate. The note of interrogation, and the note of emotion are each reckoned as 4; the dash as rather more.

159. The comma (,—bit cut off) is used to separate from each other whole propositions, parts of propositions, and even words in the middle of a proposition, when they are emphatic. (See Nos. A 13, A 14.)

Obs.—One comma cannot properly separate any word or part of a proposition from the rest of it, but two or more may do so.

160. The Semicolon (;—half limb or member) is used to stop off together two or three propositions, which stand in closer relation to each other, than to what is coming after; the sense being to a certain extent complete, though the sentence is not finished.

161. The Colon (:—limb, or member) is intended to set apart what is in itself a complete thought; though the writer purposes to add something more before he closes the sentence.

162. The Full-stop (—otherwise called *the period*) marks the close of a perfect thought; that is to say, has its place at the end of every sentence when absolutely completed.

These stops are so named from what they do, in other words from the slice, as it were, which they sever from the rest of the text.

163. The Interrogation (?) is the mark used to note a direct question.

164. The Exclamation (!) is the mark which indicates unusual emotion.

165. The Dash (—) denotes violent emotion, or change from one form of language to another.

166. () Is used to enclose a parenthesis, that is words put in by the way. The fewer parentheses the better, a long parenthesis destroys perspicuity. “ ”, or (“ ”), introduces a literal quotation.

167. For specimens of punctuation the learner is referred to the passages at the end of this book, and especially to those numbered A 5, A 13, A 14, A 15, A 20, A 21, A 22, as exhibiting a greater variety of stops than the others. Moreover he should be taught not only to distinguish one stop from another, but to point out in each place why the particular stop there found is used in preference to any other.

Obs.—The word *Period* is of Greek origin, and means *going round*, that is to say, the going from part of a proposition at the commencement of a sentence, round other imbedded propositions or phrases, to the remaining part of the first proposition. This form of the sentence, more or less complete, is constantly met with in Latin and Greek; and in those languages is sufficiently perspicuous, owing to the extensive use of participial phrases, and the variety of cases, moods, and tenses. In English it is of less frequent occurrence, and sentences so constructed are necessarily shorter.

This may be seen from the subjoined passage of Livy, of which two translations are given, one word for word with the original,

the other somewhat more in an English dress. The Latin sentence consists of two leading propositions, and the *Period* (strictly speaking) begins with the word *Ibi*que, the nominative, Hannibal, being put in after it.

Hannibal, Sagunto capto, Carthaginem Novam in hiberna concesserat; *ibique* (*Hannibal*) *auditis, quæ Romæ quæque Carthagine acta acceperatque forent, sequæ non ducem solum, sed etiam causam esse belli; partitis divenditiisque reliquiis prædæ, nihil ultra differendum ratus Hispani generis milites convocat.*

Hannibal, Saguntum (being) taken, to Carthago Nova into winter quarters had retired; and there (*Hannibal*), (being) heard what (things) at Rome and what at Carthage done and resolved on had been, and himself to be (considered) not only leader in, but also cause of war; (being) divided into lots and sold the remainder of the spoil, not at all (action) should be deferred thinking of Spanish race (the) soldiers calls together. Hannibal —— calls together.

After the capture of Saguntum, Hannibal had withdrawn to Carthago Nova for winter quarters. There he heard what had actually been done, and what further measures had been determined on at Rome and at Carthage. He found that he was regarded not only as the chief director, but as the substantive cause of the war; so thinking that no more time ought to be lost, he divided into lots and sold what was left of the plunder, and summoned the Spanish troops in his service to a general assembly.

168. Here it may not be amiss to remark, that, except perhaps the art of speaking and writing correctly, no accomplishment is better worth the attention of a gentleman, than that of reading audibly, distinctly, and with good taste. Be it understood then, that no man can do this, who does not first make himself acquainted with the author to whose words he is giving utterance; and then show by the pauses he introduces, by the emphasis he lays on certain words, and by the modulation of his voice, that he enters into the thoughts and feelings of the person whom he represents.

CHAPTER VIII.

PASSAGES SELECTED AS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

A 1. Now when Paul and his company had loosed from Paphos, they came to Perga in Pamphylia; and John departed from them returning to Jerusalem.

N. Test.

A 2. Howbeit, as the disciples stood round about him, he rose up, and came into the city; and the next day he departed with Barnabas to Derbe.

N. Test.

A 3.

Thus, while Elijah's burning wheels prepare
From Carmels heights to sweep the fields of air,
The prophet's mantle, ere his flight began,
Dropt on the world, a sacred gift to man.

Campbell.

A 4.

Oft when yon moon has climed the midnight sky,
And the lone sea-bird wakes its wildest cry,
Piled on the steep, her blazing faggots burn,
To hail the bark that never can return.—*Campbell.*

A 5. In crossing a heath, suppose I pitched my foot against a *stone*, and were asked how the stone came to be there; I might probably answer, that for any thing I knew to the contrary, it had lain there for ever; nor perhaps would it be very easy to show the absurdity of this answer. But suppose I had

found a *watch* upon the ground, and it should be enquired how the watch happened to be in that place; I should hardly think of the answer which I had before given, That for any thing I knew, the watch might have always been there.—*Paley*.

A 6. But what I have always most admired in the mole is its eyes. This animal occasionally visiting the surface, and wanting, for its safety and direction, to be informed when it does so, or when it approaches it, a perception of light was necessary.—*Paley*.

A 7.

Armed he rode all save the head,
His white beard o'er his breastplate spread;
Unbroke by age, erect his seat,
He ruled his eager courser's gait;
Forced him with chastened fire to prance,
And high curvetting slow advance.—*Scott*.

A 8 “Heaven strike with the cause of the oppressed and of the captive.” She then uttered a loud shriek and exclaimed “He is down! he is down.” “Who is down?” cried Ivanhoe; for our dear Lady’s sake, tell me which has fallen.” “The Black Knight,” answered Rebecca faintly; then instantly again shouted with joyful eagerness “But no—but no! The name of the Lord of Hosts be blessed, he is on foot again, and fights as if there were twenty men’s strength in his single arm.”—*Scott*.

A 9. “To invoke your pity, said the lovely Jewess, with a voice tremulous with emotion, would, I am

aware, be as useless as I should hold it mean. To state, that to relieve the sick and wounded of another religion cannot be displeasing to the acknowledged Founder of both our faiths were also unavailing:—and still less would it advantage me to explain that the peculiarities of my dress, language, and manners are those of my people—I had well nigh said of my country, but, alas, I have no country.”—*Scott.*

A 10.

Near yonder copse, where once a garden smiled,
And still where many a garden flower grows wild ;
There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village pastor's modest mansion rose.
A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year ;
Remote from towns he ran his godly race,
Nor e'er had changed, nor wished to change his place ;
Unskilful he to fawn, or seek for power,
By doctrines fashioned to the varying hour ;
Far other aims his heart had learned to prize,
More bent to raise the wretched than to rise.

Goldsmith.

A 11. “Ride your ways,” said the gipsy, “Ride your ways, Laird of Ellangowan”—Ride your ways, Godfrey Bertram ! This day have ye quenched seven smoking hearths—see if the fire in your ain parlour burn the blyther for that ?

A 12. “Thou’rt an honest fellow,” said the lawyer, “get thee to bed.” Thou wilt sleep sounder, I warrant

thee, then many a man that throws off an embroidered coat, and puts on a laced night-cap." "Good night, Colonel; good night, Dinmont the down-right."

Scott.

A 13. And, as common history, when called in question in any instance, may often be greatly confirmed by contemporary or subsequent events more known and acknowledged; and, as the common Scripture history, like many others, is thus confirmed; so likewise is the miraculous history of it, not only in particular instances but in general.—*Butler.*

A. 14.

With fingers weary and worn,
With eyelids heavy and red,
A woman sat in unwomanly rags
Plying her needle and thread;
Stitch! stitch! stitch!
In poverty, hunger, and dirt,
And still with a voice of dolorous pitch
She sang the song of the shirt.

Oh, men, with sisters dear,
Oh, men, with mothers and wives,
It is not linen you're wearing out,
But human creatures' lives.
Stitch! stitch! stitch!
In poverty, hunger, and dirt,
Sewing at once with a double thread,
A shroud as well as a shirt.

Oh ! but to breathe the breath
Of the cowslip and primrose sweet,
With the sky above my head
And the grass beneath my feet ;
For only one short hour
To feel, as I used to feel,
Before I knew the woes of want
And the walk that costs a meal.—*Hood.*

A 15.

If by your art, my dearest father, you
Put the wild waters in this roar, allay them ;
The sky, it seems, would pour down stinking pitch,
But that the sea, mounting to the welkin's cheek,
Dashes the fire out. O, I have suffered
With those I saw suffer. A brave vessel,
Who had no doubt, some noble creatures in her,
Dash'd all to pieces. O, the cry did knock
Against my very heart.—*Shakespeare.*

A 16.

Farewell, a long farewell to all my greatness !
This is the state of man ; to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope, to-morrow blossoms,
And bears his blushing honours thick upon him ;
The third day comes a frost, a killing frost ;
And, when he thinks, good easy man, full surely
His greatness is a ripening, nips his root,
And then he falls, as I do.—*Shakespeare.*

A 17.

And there was mounting in hot haste ; the steed
The mustering squadron, and the clattering car,

Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,
And swiftly forming in the ranks of war;
And the deep thunder peal on peal afar;
And near, the beat of the alarming drum
Roused up the soldier 'ere the morning star,
While thronged the citizens with terror dumb,
Or whispering with white lips—The foe—They come,
They come.—*Byron.*

A 18. In short, every man, in every thing he does, naturally acts upon the forethought and apprehension of avoiding evil or obtaining good: and, if the natural course of things be the appointment of God, and our natural faculties of knowledge and experience are given us by him; then the good and bad consequences which follow our actions, are his appointment: and our foresight of those consequences, is a warning given us by him, how we ought to act.

Butler.

A 19. And, to mention but one instance more; that brutes, without reason, should act, in many respects, with a sagacity and foresight vastly greater than what men have in those respects, would be thought impossible; yet it is certain they do act with such superior foresight: whether it be their own indeed, is another question.—*Butler.*

A 20.

SONG. Tell me where is fancy bred,
Or in the heart, or in the head?
How begot, how nourished?

REPLY. It is engender'd in the eyes,
 With gazing fed ; and fancy dies
 In the cradle where it lies :
 Let us all ring fancy's knell ;
 I'll begin it,—Ding, dong, bell.

ALL. Ding, dong, bell.—*Shakspeare.*

A 21.

LEAR WITH CORDELIA DEAD IN HIS ARMS.

LEAR. Howl! howl! howl! O, you are men of stones ;
 Had I your tongues and eyes, I'd use them so
 That Heav'n vault should crack : O, she is
 gone for ever!

I know when one is dead, and when one lives ;
 She's dead as earth—Lend me a looking glass ;
 If that her breath shall mist or stain the stone,
 Why, then she lives.

KENT. Is this the promis'd end ?

EDG. Or image of that horror ?

ALB. Fall and cease !

LEAR. This feather stirs ; she lives ! if it be so,
 It is a chance that does redeem all sorrows
 That ever I have felt.—*Shakspeare.*

A 22.

With that, straight up the hill there rode
 Two horsemen drenched with gore,
 And in their arms, a helpless load,
 A wounded Knight they bore.
 His hand still strained the broken brand ;
 His arms were smeared with blood and sand.

Dragged from among the horses feet,
With dinted shield, and helmet beat,
The falcon crest and plumage gone,
Can this be haughty Marmion!
Young Blount his armour did unlace,
And, gazing on his ghastly face,
Said, "By St. George he's gone!"
That spear wound has our master sped,
And see the deep cut on his head!
Good night to Marmion."—
"Unnurtured Blount! thy brawling cease:
He opes his eyes," said Eustace; "peace"—
When, doffed his casque, he felt free air,
Around 'gan Marmion wildly stare;
"Where's Harry Blount? Fitz Eustace where?
Linger ye here, he hearts of hare?
Redeem my pennon—charge again!
Cry—"Marmion to the rescue!"—vain!
Last of my race, on battle plain
That shout shall ne'er be heard again.—*Scott.*

A 23.

Fye! fye! unknit that threatning unkind brow;
And dart not scornful glances from those eyes,
To wound thy lord, thy king, thy governor:
It blots thy beauty, as frosts bite the meads;
Confounds thy frame, as whirlwinds shake fair buds;
And in no sense is meet, or amiable.
A woman moved is like a fountain troubled,
Muddy, illseeming, thick, bereft of beauty:
And while it is so, none so dry or thirsty
Will deign to sip, or touch one drop of it.—*Shakespeare*

A 24.

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate;
All but the page prescribed, their present state;
From brutes what men, from men what spirits know;
Or who could suffer being here below?
The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play?
Pleased to the last, he crops the flowery food,
And licks the hand just raised to shed his blood.
O, blindness to the future, kindly given,
That each may fill the circle marked by Heaven;
Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
A hero perish, or a sparrow fall.—*Pope*.

A 25.

Here the mellow wedding bells,
 Golden bells!
What a world of happiness their harmony foretells!
 Through the balmy air of night,
 How they ring out their delight!
 From the molten golden notes,
 And all is tune,
What a liquid ditty floats
To the turtle dove that listens, while she gloats
 On the moon!
 Oh, from out the sounding cells,
What a gush of euphony, voluminously swells!
 How it swells!
 How it dwells
On the Future! how it tells
Of the rapture that impels

To the swinging, and the ringing
 Of the bells, bells, bells,
 Of the bells, bells, bells, bells,
 Bells, bells, bells,
 To the rhyming, and the chiming of the bells.

Poe.

A 26.

And so he vanished: Then came wandering by
 A shadow like an angel, with bright hair
 Dabbled in blood; and he shriek'd out aloud—
 "Clarence is come, false, fleeting, perjur'd Clarence,
 That stabb'd me in the field by Twokesbury;—
 Seize on him, furies, take him to your torments!"—
 With that, methought, a legion of foul fiends
 Environ'd me, and bawled in mine ears
 Such hideous cries, that, with the very noise
 I trembling wak'd, and, for a season after
 Could not believe but that I was in hell;
 Such terrible impression made my dream.

Shakespeare.

A 27. "Really, Sir," replied Hazlewood, "in what so intimately concerns myself"—

"Sir, it does not concern you but in a very secondary degree;—that is it does not concern you, as a giddy young fellow, who takes pleasure in contradicting his father; but it concerns the country, Sir; and the public, Sir; and the Kingdom of Scotland in so far as the interests of the Hazlewood family, Sir, is committed, and interested, and put in peril, in, by, and through you, Sir."—*Scott.*

A 28. SLENDER. I will marry her, Sir, at your request; but if there be no great love in the beginning, yet Heaven may decrease it upon better acquaintance, when we are married, and have more occasion to know one another: I hope upon familiarity will grow more contempt; but if you say, *Marry* her, I will marry her, that I am freely dissolved, and dissolutely.

EVANS. It is a fery discretion answer; save the fault is in the 'ort dissolutely; the 'ort is, according to our meaning resolutely; his meaning his good.

Shakespeare.

A 29.

HAMLET. To be, or not to be, that is the question;—
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The sling and arrows of outrageous fortune;
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them? To die,—to
sleep,—

No more—and by a sleep to say we end
The heart ache, and the thousand natural
shocks

That flesh is heir to,—'tis a consummation
Devoutly to be wished.—*Shakespeare.*

A 30.

OTHELLO. It is the cause, it is the cause, my soul,—
Let me not name it to you, you chaste
stars!—

It is the cause—Yet I'll not shed her blood;
Nor scar that whiter skin of hers than snow,
And smooth as monumental alabaster.

Yet she must die, else she'll betray more men.
Put out the light,—and then—Put out the
light!

If I quench thee, thou flaming minister,
I can again thy former light restore,
Should I repent me;—but once put out thine,
Thou cunning'st pattern of excelling nature,
I know not where is that Promethean heat,
That can thy light relume.—*Shakespeare.*

FINIS.

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